

# Week 15 : Sample Spaces and Events

⋮ pending tasks	
⋮ type	

## Learning Objectives:

What are sets and some of their properties

What are experiments, sample spaces, outcomes and events?

What are the axioms of probability?

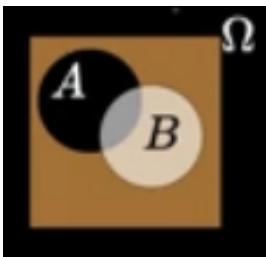
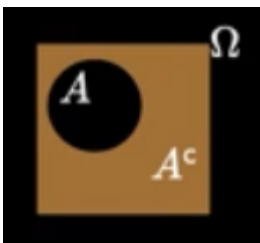
What are some simple ways of defining a probability function?

What are some important theorems: multiplication rule, total probability theorem and Bayes' theorem?

What are independent events?

## An Overview of Set Theory

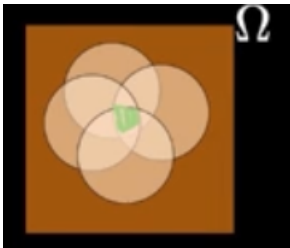
- A set is a collection of elements. The order does not matter. A compact notation can be used to represent large sets. e.g.  $S = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$  here,  $a \in S$  but  $b \notin S$ .
- All the elements of a subset can be found in the parent set. e.g. set of vowels  $S$  is a subset of the set of alphabet  $A$  or,  $S \subset A$ .
- Two sets are equal if they are subsets of each other, this can be stated as  $A = B$  iff  $A \subset B$  and  $B \subset A$ .
- Every set of interest is a subset of the universal set e.g. set of all aces ( $A$ ) is a subset of the deck of cards  $\Omega$ , or  $A \subset \Omega$ .
- A complement of a set  $A$  includes all elements of the universal set  $\Omega$  that do not belong the set.  $A^c = \{x : x \in \Omega \text{ and } x \notin A\}$



black,white,gray for union; only gray for intersection.

- Union of sets  $A$  and  $B$  includes all the elements belonging to the two sets.  $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$
- Intersection of two sets  $A, B$  contains all elements that belong to both  $A$  and  $B$ .  $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$ .

- Union of  $n$  set can be given by  $x \in A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \dots \cup A_n$  iff  $x \in A_i$  for some  $i$ .
- Intersection of  $n$  set is given by  $x \in A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 \dots \cap A_n$  iff  $x \in A_i \forall i$



All white for union; green for intersection.

## Properties of Set Operations

- **Commutativity**

$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$

$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

- **Associativity**

$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$$

$$A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$$

- **Distributive Laws**

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

**Proof ( first one)**

$$x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$$

$$\implies x \in A \text{ and } x \in (B \cup C)$$

$$\implies x \in A \text{ and } B \text{ or } x \in A \text{ and } C$$

- **DeMorgan's Laws**

$$(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$$

$$(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$$

**Proof (first one)**

$$x \in (A \cap B)^c$$

$$\implies x \notin A \cap B$$

$$\implies x \notin A \text{ or } x \notin B$$

$$\implies x \in A^c \cup B^c$$

- **Countable v/s uncountable Infinite Sets**





Set of all real numbers has infinite elements and is uncountable, whereas the set of integers has infinite elements and is countable. An infinite set is countable if there is a 1-1 correspondence between the elements of the set and the set of positive integers.

## Experiments & Sample Spaces

def experiment - (t = 1:55)

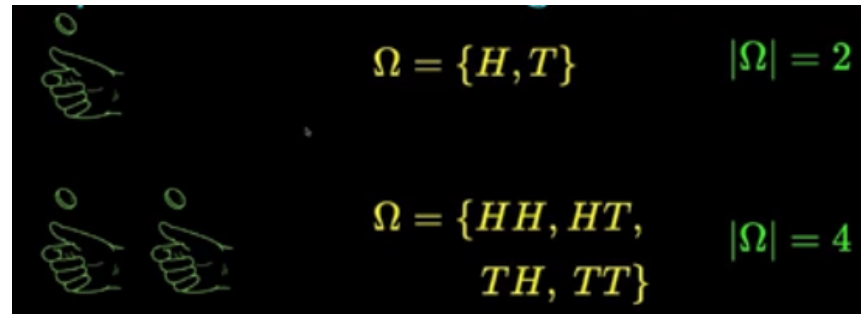
def sample space - (t = 2:40)

- Procedure that can be repeated infinite times and has a well defined set of outcomes is called an **experiment** or a **trial**.

	Experiment: Going to the mall Outcome: (infected, not_infected)		Experiment: Blood Test Outcome: (positive, negative)
	Experiment: Bowling a bowl Outcome: {0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6} runs		Experiment: Writing an exam Outcome: {A, B, C, D, E, F}

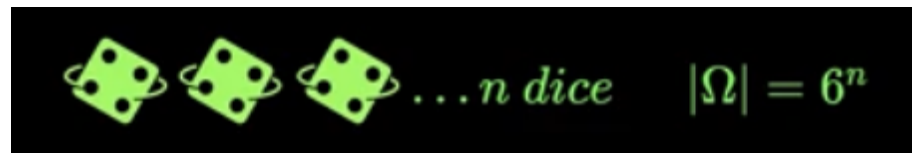
Examples of experiments.

- **Sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes of an experiment. Its elements are **mutually exclusive** and **collectively exhaustive**.
- The outcome of every trial is uncertain but the set of outcomes is certain.
- For example, Tossing a coin is a classic example of an experiment. The sample space  $\Omega$  differs with number of coins being tossed simultaneously.



Example of tossing coins.

- Rolling fair dice is another such example where there are 6 possible outcomes on a single roll.



Example of rolling n dice.

- The higher the number the outcomes (equally likely) of an experiment, lesser the probability of any single outcome. The experiments can also have continuous outcomes.

## Events of an Experiment

def event - (t = 0:30)

- The set of outcomes of an experiment is called an **event**. It is a subset of the sample space. For instance, in the sample space of double coin toss (with four possible outcomes) the event that first toss corresponds to a head (which is a subset of the sample space) is {HH, HT}
- Union of two events A and B would include all the events that occur in A and B ( $A \cup B$ ). Likewise, the intersection would include elements that are common to both A and B ( $A \cap B$ ). Compliment of an event A ( $A^c$ ) would include all the elements of the sample space not present in A, thus,  $A \cup A^c = \Omega$  and  $A \cap A^c = \emptyset$ .
- Union of multiple events (e.g. A, B and C) is such that the outcome occurs in atleast one of A, B or C. The intersection would imply that the outcome be a part of all three sets.
- Two events A and B are said to be disjoint if they cannot occur simultaneously, i.e.,  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ . A and  $A^c$  would be one such example. In general, events  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots, A_n$  are said to be mutually disjoint or pairwise disjoint if  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \forall i, j$  such that  $i \neq j$ .
- If union of mutually disjoint sets is equal to the universal set then they are said to partition the sample space (e.g. if  $A \cup B \cup C = \Omega$ , then A, B, C partition the sample space)

## Axioms of Probability

- Probability of an event A,  $P(A)$  is called the probability function. The properties of probability functions are given by axioms of probability.

**Axiom 1 (non-negativity)** :  $P(A) \geq 0 \forall A$ . No event can have a negative chance of occurrence.

**Axiom 2 (normalization)** :  $P(\Omega) = 1$ . The probability of the sample space must be 1.

**Axiom 3 (finite additivity)** : If  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are mutually disjoint, then  $P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$ . This implies that the probability of larger events can be computed from smaller events. For instance, each of the six possible outcomes of a die roll is known, then the probabilities of other events (such as chance of an odd number) can be easily calculated.

## Some Properties of Probability

**Property 1:**  $P(A) = 1 - P(A^c)$

This follows from axiom 2 and  $A \cup A^c = \Omega$ .

$$1 = P(\Omega) = P(A \cup A^c) = P(A) + P(A^c) \\ \implies P(A) = 1 - P(A^c)$$

**Property 2:**  $P(A) \leq 1$

From axiom1, in  $P(A) = 1 - P(A^c)$ ,  $P(A^c)$  must be greater than or equal to 0. This implies that the value of  $P(A)$  must be greater than 1, proving the property 2.

**Property 3:**  $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

Writing B as  $(B \cap A^c) \cup (B \cap A)$  ensures that the sets A and B are disjoint. This would enable the application of axiom 3.

$$\begin{aligned} P(A \cup B) &= P(A \cup (B \cap A^c)) \\ &= P(A) + P(B \cap A^c) \end{aligned}$$

$P(B)$  can be written as  $P((B \cap A^c) \cup (B \cap A))$  and since both are disjoint sets, the additivity property can be applied.

$$\text{Thus, } P(B) = P(B \cap A^c) + P(B \cap A)$$

$$\text{Therefore, } P(B \cap A^c) = P(B) - P(B \cap A)$$

$$\text{using this, } P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(B \cap A)$$

**Property 4: The sum of probabilities of all outcomes is equal to 1**

Since outcomes form partitions of sample space ( $\Omega = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n$ ) and all the sets are disjoint (from axiom 3,  $P(\Omega) = P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$ ). Here RHS is equal to 1, this implies that LHS is also equal to 1 i.e.  $\sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) = 1$ .

**Property 5:**  $P(\emptyset) = 0$

The probability of the universal set is 1. and  $P(\Omega) = P(\Omega \cup \emptyset)$ , which are disjoint.

$$\text{Thus, } 1 = P(\Omega) = P(\Omega \cup \emptyset) = P(\Omega) + P(\emptyset)$$

$$\text{since, } P(\Omega) = 1, P(\emptyset) = 0.$$

## Designing Probability Functions (as relative frequency)

- Probability of an event  $A_i$  can be thought of as the fraction of times the event occurs when the experiment is repeated a **large number** of times.

$$P(A_i) = \frac{\text{no. of times outcome is in } A_i}{\text{no. of times the experiment was repeated}}$$

- $P(A_i)$  is a ratio of 2 positive numbers. This implies  $P(A_i) \geq 0$ , thus, satisfying the first axiom of probability. Since the outcome always has to be in the sample space  $P(\Omega) = 1$ , which satisfies the second axiom.
- Let  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  be two disjoint sets with number of events  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  respectively and the total number of events (from both the sets) be n. This implies that that we need to check if  $P(A_1 \cup A_2) = P(A_1) + P(A_2)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} P(A_1 \cup A_2) &= \frac{k_1 + k_2}{n} \\ &= \frac{k_1}{n} + \frac{k_2}{n} = P(A_1) + P(A_2) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the third axiom is also satisfied.

- The axioms of probability are about all possible events (outcomes being a part of it). Any event can be represented as a union of some disjoint outcomes. Thus, if the frequencies of outcomes are known then the probability of any event can be computed.
- The sample from which the probabilities were estimated should be drawn from the same population on which we are interested in making inferences.

## Designing Probability Functions (equally likely outcomes)

- Deriving a formula for computing the probability of events of an experiment with n equally likely outcomes:

$E$  : any event with k outcomes (disjoint)

Thus,  $E$  can be expressed as a union of 'k' singleton events(outcomes):

$$P(E) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{n} = \frac{k}{n}$$

'k' is the number of outcomes in event X divided by the total number of outcomes in  $\Omega$ .

i.e. the probability function  $P(X) = \frac{\text{no. outcomes in } X}{\text{no. outcomes in } \Omega}$

- Here, the first axiom of probability is satisfied ( $P(A_i) \geq 0$ ) since is the ratio of two numbers. The second one is also satisfied as  $P(\Omega) = 1$  in the above equation. It also satisfies the third axiom of probability.

## Conditional Probabilities

- $P(A|B)$  is called the conditional probability of event A given the event B. It is given by

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

- Conditional probabilities also satisfy the axioms of probability.

$$\begin{aligned} P(A|B) &= \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \geq 0 : \text{ratio of two probabilities} \\ P(\Omega|A) &= \frac{P(\Omega \cap A)}{P(A)} = \frac{P(A)}{P(A)} = 1 \\ P(A_1 \cup A_2|B) &= \frac{P((A_1 \cup A_2) \cap B)}{P(B)} \\ &= \frac{P((A_1 \cap B) \cup (A_2 \cap B))}{P(B)} \\ &= \frac{P(A_1 \cap B)}{P(B)} + \frac{P(A_2 \cap B)}{P(B)} \\ &= P(A_1|B) + P(A_2|B) \end{aligned}$$

Axioms of probability.

## The Multiplication Principle

- It is also called as chain rule of probability.

$$\begin{aligned} P(A|B) &= \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \\ \therefore P(A \cap B) &= P(A|B) \cdot P(B) \\ P(B|A) &= \frac{P(B \cap A)}{P(A)} \\ \therefore P(B \cap A) &= P(B|A) \cdot P(A) \\ \therefore P(A \cap B) &= P(A|B) \cdot P(B) = P(B|A) \cdot P(A) \end{aligned}$$

Chain rule of probability.

- For n events,  $P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A_1) \prod_{i=2}^n P(A_i|A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_{i-1})$ .

## Total Probability Theorem

A set B (partition of  $\Omega$ ) which intersects 'n' disjoint sets (the 'n' sets together form  $\Omega$ ) can be expressed as union of its parts. The probability of the set B can be found using the total probability theorem as

$$P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) \cdot P(B|A_i)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n \text{ partition } \Omega \\
& A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n = \Omega \quad A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \quad \forall i \neq j \\
& B = (B \cap A_1) \cup (B \cap A_2) \cup \dots \cup (B \cap A_n) \\
& P(B) = P(B \cap A_1) + P(B \cap A_2) + \dots + P(B \cap A_n) \\
& P(B) \\
& = P(A_1) \cdot P(B|A_1) + P(A_2) \cdot P(B|A_2) + \dots + P(A_n) \cdot P(B|A_n) \\
& \boxed{P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) \cdot P(B|A_i)}
\end{aligned}$$

Total Probability theorem.

## Bayes' Theorem

Bayes' Theorem is about updating existing belief in a event when the result of another event is known.

$$\begin{aligned}
& \text{Exploit Multiplication Rule} \\
& P(A_1)P(B|A_1) = P(B)P(A_1|B) \\
& \text{Exploit Total Probability Theorem} \\
& P(B) = P(A_1) \cdot P(B|A_1) + P(A_2) \cdot P(B|A_2) + P(A_3) \cdot P(B|A_3) \\
& \text{Exploit the known probabilities} \\
& \boxed{P(A_1|B) = \frac{P(A_1) \cdot P(B|A_1)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}} \quad \text{Bayes' Theorem}
\end{aligned}$$

## Independent Events

def independent events - (t=5:24)

def pairwise independence - (t=12:00)

def mutual independence - (t=12:29)

- Event probabilities are updated using Bayes' only when they are dependent. This does not apply to independent events.
- Two events A and B are independent if  $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$
- Events  $A_1, A_2 \dots A_n$  are said to be pairwise independent if for any two events  $P(A_i \cap A_j) = P(A_i) \cdot P(A_j) \forall i \neq j$ .
- Mutual independence is more strict than pairwise independence in the sense that  $A_1, A_2 \dots A_n$  are said to be (mutually) independent if for all subsets  $I \subset (1, 2, 3, \dots n)$  of n events, the condition,  $P(\cap_{i \in I} A_i) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(A_i)$  holds.

## Summary

- There is an element of chance (randomness) associated with the everyday activities, therefore the certainty of an event cannot be precisely determined.
- Sets can be infinite countable/uncountable.
- The probability of an event can be computed as the sum of the probabilities of the disjoint outcomes contained in the event.
- Any event can be represented as a union of some disjoint outcomes. Thus, if the frequencies of outcomes are known then the probability of any event can be computed.
- Conditional probability  $P(A|B)$  is given by,  $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$
- By the chain rule of probability,  $P(A \cap B) = P(A|B) \cdot P(B) = P(B|A) \cdot P(A)$ .
- The total probability theorem states that an event B that is a formed from elements of disjoint sets (that make up  $\Omega$ ) is given by  $P(B) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) \cdot P(B|A_i)$ .

- Using the Bayes' theorem we can update the known probability as and when more evidence for related events are obtained. This can be achieved using  $P(A_1|B) = \frac{P(A_1) \cdot P(B|A_1)}{\sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i)P(B|A_i)}$ . This isn't used if the events are independent.